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ABSTRACT

Linguistics as a science has been concerned with comparison ever since its inception, the number and variety of approaches increasing steadily in the course of its development. Interest in linguistic comparison extends into the field of foreign language teaching. Linguists have attempted to solve the problem of methodology in contrastive linguistics by turning to the models of description that they favor, including: (1) contrastive transformational grammar, (2) the stratificational model, and (3) the sector analysis model. The present study is based on the categorical approach to contrastive linguistics, an approach whose underlying assumption is the existence of sets of categories, the most general being notional and conceptual ones, the most particular being morphological, grammatical and lexical ones. This study consists of a systematic contrastive analysis of the morphological categories of English verbs and verbs in four languages of the Soviet Union: Russian, Turkoman, Ossetic, and Georgian. (CLK)

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APPROACHES TO CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

Edited by Olga Akhmanova

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I N T R O D U C T I O N

Linguistics as a science has been concerned with comparison ever since its inception, the number and variety of methods and approaches increasing steadily in the course of its development. First in the field was the classical "comparative philology" (sravnitel'no-istoričeskoje jazykoznanije) based on the genetic approach to linguistic classification. The comparative-historical method of reconstructing non-attested linguistic forms was generally recognized as the only truly scientific approach to language-study for over a century. A sister-concept is "characterology" which gave prominence to factors of time, space, migration - the basic parameters of "areal" linguistics.

In contrast with genetic and areal linguistics "typological comparison" is not based on either exhaustive inventories of concrete linguistic data, or careful investigations of factors of time and space. Its starting point is the idea of general linguistic isomorphism, abstract systems of linguistic invariants, the quest for "language uni-

versals". Its methodology presupposes an underlying general structure, a linguistic "gold standard" by which to measure the actual differences and affinities of concrete languages. Hence the method of "proximity to the standard (etalon)".

These, then, are the three main "approaches", the three methods of linguistic comparison, the three "linguistics" or "philologies". But where does "contrastive linguistics" come in?[1/]

If "contrastive linguistics" is just another name for "comparative-descriptive" then it may be well regarded merely as a part of "comparative philology": the two methods are then complementary. According to A.I. Smirnitsky "... in order that the causes of analogous (parallel) development as well as of divergence of languages may be brought to light (this being the main preoccupation of "comparative philology" - sravnitel'no-istoričeskogo jazykoznanija, O. A.) the converging and diverging facts themselves have to be described and confronted. To achieve this, comparative-historical linguistics must turn to the comparative-descriptive (sravnitel'no-opisatel'nyj) or, as it is not infrequently called, the "confronting" (soposta-

vitel'nyj) method. By using this method the facts of a given language are scientifically described in juxtaposition with those of another one. The description thus obtained gives a clear picture of the relationship of the two linguistic systems by reflecting the factual state of affairs and objectively distinguishing between the essential and non-essential traits and characteristics of the two systems. Otherwise stated, the comparative philological technique is based on formal affinity, the non-accidental or regular morphophonemic "parallels", while the methodology of contrastive analysis (which has not yet developed rational and generally acceptable techniques) proceeds in the opposite direction: from the assumption of notional similarities to the peculiarities of their expression in the languages in question.

These, then, are the three well-established scientific approaches to linguistic comparison in the broadest sense. But interest in linguistic comparison is by no means confined to what is now sometimes described as "theoretical linguistics". Side-by-side with the scientifically sophisticated methodologies there has always existed in one form or

another the "primary" or naive reaction of the man-in-the-street: is what he hears or reads the "same" language as his own? Can he really and usefully "hear" it? If not, then why? It should be noted that the reaction in question includes also the firmly rooted conviction that differing "linguistic behaviours" are learnable, that different codes can be "switched" and even "cracked", the question thus boiling down to a search for the most rational means to a tolerably clear end.

There is also little doubt that the foreign-language teaching has been concerned with implementing all these ideas since time immemorial. We can teach languages successfully only if the differences are made to stand out, are brought into relief, against the backdrop of what the languages have in common[2/] even if and when this latter fact is not explicitly stated. Thus, in what follows "contrastive" analysis of "simultaneity-anteriority" in the five languages presupposes - 1) the existence of verbs in all of them, 2) the fact that verbs possess grammatical categories in all the five languages, for otherwise how could they form a separate "part-of-speech", and 3) that notional categories of time, together

With certain additional refinements of aspect and (or) taxis, can be,or even have been, more or less consistently expressed in all the five.

From what has just been said it might appear that contrastive linguistics is less "scientific" than the other kinds of linguistic comparison or even not scientific at all. This view, though sometimes supported, is totally unacceptable[3]. True, the methodology "is still in a state of flux"[4]. Nevertheless the fact that very much remains to be done is no reason for denying contrastive linguistics a place within the system of linguistic sciences.

How does one "approach" the problem of method in Contrastive Linguistics? It is only natural that different linguists should turn to the "models of description" they happen to favour and use them as their starting point. Very interesting examples of how analytical comparison could be effected 1) as "contrastive transformational grammar" and 2) as based on the "stratificational" model are found among the "Papers in Contrastive Linguistics[5]". Dr. Wyatt's paper presents all the "operations" connected with rewriting, source, and resulting strings etc. for "passive" (Spanish-

-English) Interrogative Direct Object (Portugese--English) and Imperative (Spanish-English). The particular methodology is his own; Dr. Wyatt believes that the approach recommended by R.B. Lees (Lees 1960) is an instance of those frequent cases when "the English Transformational Grammar... resorted to arbitrary decisions, or weak or erroneous justification" (p.82). What Dr.Wyatt is after is "... a common core ... general enough to encompass several or a number of languages, the statements in the common core expressing sub-universals, at least, if not universals".

Although in the abstract this approach would appear to be perfectly acceptable, one fails to see how and when all the imaginable constructions of "a number of languages" could really be provided for - especially as the miraculous ability of the native informant to approve all the "resulting strings" is more and more often called in question[6/]. What is more, the transformational generative model may be unacceptable as a basis for contrastive analysis for even more serious reasons, even rejected *in toto*. This is the

view held, among others, by R.L. Snook (Snook, 1971), for, in Chomsky's own words "... a generative grammar is not a model for a speaker or a hearer". How these proceed "... in some practical or efficient way" to construct their particular "deviations" with respect to a particular generative grammar belongs to the Theory of Performance" (Chomsky 1965:9).

To demonstrate how "problems of contrastive analysis may be approached within a s t r a t i f i c a t i o n a l framework", Snook uses seven sentences and expressions with *also, as well, too*, and *either*; *by, by the time, up to, until*; German *bis* etc. because mistakes in the use of words of this type lend themselves most readily to classification "... in terms of the realizational relationship and patterns involved". Snook comes to the conclusion that the Stratificational approach to contrastive analysis brings out "the central role of semological (i.e. sememic and lexemic) comparison in this activity". (op.cit, p. 35). It is not easy to see how the method could be applied to words, in general: Snook's material is confined to a very limited and specific

group of words. As far as contrastive analysis on the "semological" level is concerned, E. Coseriu's brilliant article gives a very clear idea of the problems and difficulties involved[7].

A few words about the sector analysis model and its uses in contrastive studies[8].

To the uninitiated the sector analysis is hardly distinguishable from the analysis into parts of the sentence, because the sectors of a sentence are defined as the positions occupied by any adverbial, the subject, a middle modifier, a predicate modifier, the verbal and the complements. In other words, we are dealing here again with the so-called "slots" which make one think both of the analysis into parts of the sentence and the orthodox tagmemic analysis. "The function of the filler of a given position in a sentence is determined primarily by the position it occupies in the construction of which it is a part, which in turn fills a single position or sector on the next higher layer in the sentence. Therefore the first task in analysis is to determine the hierarchy of functional positions which can be identified as sectors within a given sentence. The fillers of these positions are then

examined to determine their form. The analysis is always reductive, it starts at the sentence layer. A construction occurring as a functional unit on a given layer is also analysable as consisting of a string of potential positions of different kinds of functional units on a lower layer and so on to the word layer. Finally, on the word layer each word is classified according to the word class to which it belongs." As far as this approach is concerned, the most important point to make is the following: are the parts of a sentence - členy predloženija - universal, defined and established logically or are they peculiar to different languages or different systems of languages? If the former is the case then this sort of analysis is, probably, not very important or interesting for contrastive studies, because something that is clearly universal can be taken for granted and there is no special point in going through different linguistic systems to find certain minute or unimportant divergences from the general picture. If the slots - those positions or functions, which are covered by both the traditional nomenclature of sentence parts and the ones that have just been enumerated - are different

in different languages, then this aspect of analysis is quite useful, interesting and deserves attention. A certain amount of research along these lines has already been done, but at the moment we cannot go any more deeply into the problem because it is not immediately concerned with the line of investigation which we have chosen for the present volume.

We have dwelt at some length on these three approaches to contrastive analysis because, although mutually exclusive, they are based on the same premise: the underlying models of description. What we were hoping thus to bring into relief is an altogether different approach - the "categorial" one. Our underlying assumption is the existence of sets of categories - the most general notional and conceptual ones, and the more particular - the morphological grammatical, the lexical (as well as the lexical-grammatical) etc. In the present book we are concentrating our attention on the former and confining the discussion to the m o r p h o l o g i c a l g r a m m a t i c a l c a t e g o r i e s o f t h e v e r b. These were chosen because the verb is a well-determined part of speech in all the languages under consideration. But, of course, the same metho-

phology can be applied to all the other parts of speech as well.

Contrastive analysis is carried on in the USSR on a wide scale. We considered it our duty to give our colleagues an idea of its scope and diversity - hence the Bibliography and the Footnotes. We should also like to mention that this trend in linguistic research is of especial importance in a multinational country like the USSR, particularly in which the languages of the less numerous peoples play such a great role - in education, literature and art, as well as jurisdiction, local administration etc. We have, therefore, been so bold as to dedicate the book to the 50-th Anniversary of the USSR - an outstanding Landmark in the History of the Soviet Union.

The labour of writing was divided among the authors as follows: Olga Akhmanova wrote the Introduction and included in the text of the book her contribution to the 9th International Congress of Linguists[9/] - Part II of the book. She also suggested the general layout of the volume and the method of research and description. Part I was written by Nina Slonimskaya as well as the part of Part II where the main ideas of Roman Jakobson's well-known

"Shifters, Verbal Categories, and the Russian Verb" are presented. Part III which presents the results of the contrastive investigation proper was written jointly, by Larisa Delieva, Rosa Nepesova and Nina Slonimskaya.

PART I

SOME PRELIMINARIES TO CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF MORPHOLOGICAL GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

As has already been explained in the Introduction, modern linguistics is increasingly concerned with contrastive and typological studies of languages. It has also been shown that concentration of research on systematic comparison of non-cognate languages is not only a very important branch of linguistics but also one which is of great practical importance.

At the same time although a considerable amount of work has already been done as far as the theory of contrastive analysis is concerned, very many problems remain unsolved, especially with respect to the methodology of this branch of linguistics.

To what has been said in the Introduction about the general methodological background of contrastive linguistics we must reiterate the very important consideration that contrastive analysis differs from comparative historical philology in the fact that the starting point is the content plane of the contrasted units: meaning, content plays here a dominant role. There is also the difference that in the case of contrastive

studies a large number of very important basic theoretical notions play a most important role. Thus, the "contrastive" linguist cannot help concerning himself with broad generalization, which underlies this kind of linguistic comparison. We can even go so far as to say that even the most general linguistic problems, such as, for instance, the problem of linguistic relativity, ("the world-view approach") as well as many other problems of the same scope stand to gain by the development of contrastive linguistics.

The very important general problem of linguistic system, of systematic description or arrangement of linguistic facts, also stands to gain from studies of this kind, for only by contrasting grammatical categories of different languages can the researcher really penetrate into the specific character of this or that language and understand its internal basic regularities. At the same time the practical significance of this kind of research is paramount: the teaching of foreign languages, translation, and many other aspects of applied linguistics, should be based on overall contrastive analyses of the respective languages.

Speaking of the importance of contrastive analysis we must again stress the necessity of research in this field for a multinational country like the USSR, which comprises more than 140 national languages and in which

so much importance is attached to the development of the national languages and the national literatures.[10] At the same time not only the Russian language - the language of international communication within the Soviet Union, but also the so-called "foreign languages", i.e. the modern European languages, occupy a very considerable place in our linguistic activity[11].

Separate mention should also be made of the closely connected with the above, and at the same time specific, problems of translation. So far the number of translations which were made directly from a foreign language, that is to say, non-Soviet-Union languages, into the national languages is very limited. The non-Russian reader, who wants to read foreign classics in his own language, and not in the Russian translation, very often has to put up with a translation "of the second order" - a text re-translated from the Russian translation.

We mention these facts because we believe that systematic contrastive analysis of, for instance, English and Turkoman, English and Ossetic, English and Georgian and so on, will help to stimulate direct translation from European languages into the national ones.

Last, but by no means least, the importance of contrastive linguistics becomes ever greater also because of the growing political, economical and cultural contacts with foreign countries.

In the present monograph an attempt has been made to effect a systematic contrastive analysis of the morphological categories of the English verb on the one hand, and the morphological grammatical categories of four languages of the Soviet Union - Russian, Turkoman, Ossetic and Georgian - on the other. Before analysis proper could be actually effected, we had first to achieve as clear an understanding as possible of the particular problems which have to be solved if concrete research is to be satisfactory.

We were also bound to acquaint ourselves with the "state of the art" and work out a metalinguistic system on the basis of which to describe and generalize our findings and the conclusions we arrived at.

As far as the "state of the art" is concerned, the number of contrastive studies, which have been carried out in this country is very great. Unfortunately, however, not infrequently contrastive analysis is confined to a mere comparison of a certain original text with its translation, the research thus remaining within the confines of a certain concrete " etic" situation. In other words, the task of the contrastive linguist is often understood as merely a juxtaposition of two or more concrete texts in the respective languages. In this case the result remains a purely empirical description with the outcome not exceeding the particular corpus of utterances

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in the source language and their possible (not always perfectly acceptable) translations or renderings into target language. It follows, naturally, that the method of approach in cases of this kind precludes the formulation of linguistic or "emic" conclusions or regularities in the proper sense of the word. It cannot, in the nature of things, enable the student to acquire more general knowledge - one that is worthwhile from the point of view of the linguistic systems concerned, the point of view of the two languages as certain "emic" systems.

Let us present a few examples. In quite a number of text-books we find statements of regular correspondence between the English continuous forms, on the one hand, and the imperfective aspect, on the other, the English continuous form being translated into Russian only by means of imperfective aspect forms. Thus, for instance:
Dinny was thinking - Динни думала.
Mrs.Gummidge was knitting in her corner - Миссис Гамидж вязала на стуле.
I was still brooding over the fact - [12] Я всё ещё размышляла над этим сообщением etc.

From examples of this kind it could be deduced that the non-continuous English forms should be translated by means of perfective aspect forms, that is, we could come to the conclusion of the existence of a simple parallel-

lism - Continuous-Imperfective and Non-Continuous-Perfective. We could even go so far as to believe that, given the two categorial forms of aspect in English and in Russian, we would not have to investigate very many texts to come to the conclusion that, generally speaking, equating Russian imperfective and English continuous is much more natural than equating Russian imperfective and English non-continuous, or equating English continuous and Russian perfective categorial forms. In actual fact, however, the situation is very much more complex. We can adduce many examples to show that the above neatly arranged hypothetical pairs are not at all regularly realized. Thus, for instance, very often non-continuous forms are rendered by means of imperfective ones:

On the morning of the third day she walked alone.

На третий день утром она гуляла одна.

Obviously, if the original had "was walking" the translation would be the same.

Jolly alone sustained[13] the conversation.

Разговор поддерживал один Джолли.

In their turn, continuous forms are sometimes translated into Russian by means of the perfective aspect; thus, for instance:

1/. The twilight was by this time shading down into darkness.

Сумерки уже спустились.

2/. Dinny was thinking... *Динни подумала...*

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Many more examples of this kind could be adduced to support sometimes quite contradictory conclusions, based on the purely empirical method of comparison of separate speech events in the original and its translation. To make our conclusions reliable and objective we should bear in mind the following all important fact: in the systems of languages under consideration the opposition Continuous-Non-Continuous occupies an altogether different place as compared with the Perfective-Imperfective opposition in the other languages. The opposition Continuous-Non-Continuous Aspect in English is purely grammatical, whereas the Perfective-Imperfective opposition in Russian is an extremely complex problem, one of those "fuzzy" points where, metaphorically speaking, the language "has not quite made up its mind yet". It "has not decided" whether the Perfective-Imperfective opposition should be expressed by purely grammatical, or purely lexical or grammatical-lexical, or, even, idiomatic and phraseological means[14].

From what has been said about the method of collating texts it does not follow that this method is unacceptable, for in this way we certainly can make observations which are not without interest. Nevertheless, reliable contrastive analysis, that is one which does not depend on the vagaries and whimsicalities of individual concrete texts

and their translations, if properly grounded, requires a systematic analytical study of systems of categories for the noun, the verb, as well as other parts of speech, for only in this way can we really assess the latent, potential possibilities of expression in two or more languages. In reverse, these findings will be of great importance for translation, for learning languages, as well as other activities in the field of applied linguistics.

In the present monograph we concentrate on the morphological categories of the verb. As will be seen below, this task is a complex one - because it is not easy to divide systematically the grammatical categories from the lexical ones[15]. Nonetheless it is absolutely necessary for morphology, as a branch of linguistics, as a part of grammar, to be categorized and presented systematically. Unless this is done, the picture remains blurred and the method of research falls to the ground.

The first step must consist in drawing a distinct line between grammar and all other aspects of linguistic study. Grammar is that branch of linguistics which studies the inflexions, the formulae of word combination and structural types of sentences as completely abstracted from the "concrete", "material" or "lexical" meanings of words, word combinations and sentences.

This of course does not mean to say that the study of grammar in general should be completely cut off from all lexical or phraseological preoccupations. On the contrary. In the English department of the MGU syntax is regarded as dialectical unity of colligation and collocation. When we insist on beginning with grammatical morphology we do it because in grammar the categorizations are stable and well-grounded. Besides, we are lucky to possess a complete system of grammatical categories of the English language as worked out by the late A.I. Smirnitsky. This system of grammatical categories has proved to be workable, and in the course of twenty odd years which have passed since it was first presented, there have been no criticisms of any importance of this system, as a whole - only separate remarks on some of the details, or some interpretations of the meaning of this or that category. Moreover, as a system of categories its influence is clearly seen in many books which have since been written both within the Soviet Union and abroad. It should also be noted that the general trend of research in the linguistic school to which the present authors belong is based on Professor A.I. Smirnitsky's teaching.

There is one more reason why the existence of a complete system of categories not only facilitates sub-

sequent research but is actually indispensable.

Whenever synchronic analytical contrastive typological analysis is undertaken, it is necessary that the researcher should have a kind of basic and underlying sample system to base his concrete research on. In this connection one more problem has to be brought up.

Comparative philology is based on an assumed identity of morphemes, on morphological genetic sameness - with the semantic or notional aspect of the material taking the second place. For comparative philology absolutely essential and basic is the e x p r e s s i o n p l a n e - comparing the morphological structure of morphemes with meaning coming next and being more or less arbitrarily assigned to the morphemes, in an attempt to account for their assumed identity on the expression plane.

With analytic comparison (as with typological comparison) the opposite is the case. We have to start with conceptual categories, we have to think of the system of grammatical categories not in terms of their form, but primarily in terms of their content - the system of those notions or concepts or grammatical meanings which are contained in the system of grammatical oppositions under investigation. This, certainly, does not mean to say that form does not matter. Form matters

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very much indeed, but in the case of contrastive linguistics the study of form comes in when the system of notions and concepts had already been established. We are lucky to have an excellent starting point - a well-grounded system of grammatical categories - on which to base our contrastive studies. The different forms in the different languages can thus be viewed against the backdrop of this basic system with all the differences being thus brought into relief. We should be very happy if the findings of our contrastive analysis enabled us to achieve as clear a presentation of the five systems of morphological grammatical categories as practicable at the present state of research.

x x x

Nina Slonimskaya has supervised the work of nine undergraduate students - (N. Filippova, N. Mandžgaladze, G. Goršečnikova, N. Zinčenko, S. Kuznecova, L. Snastina, L. Malaškevič, L. Stepanova, I. Mezenko), who worked on the Category of Voice, the Category of Mood, the Category of Tense, the Category of Taxis, the Category of Aspect. the Category of Expressivity

The results may be summarized as follows:

The Category of Expressivity

One of the morphological grammatical categories of the English verb is the category of expressivity. This grammatical category is not found in any of the other languages under investigation.

This category is constituted by the opposition of two categorial forms: the analytical emphatic form with the verb "do" and the synthetic non-emphatic form. Thus, for instance: Come! - Do come!
He came. - He did come.
The analytical emphatic form is widely used in English both in prose and poetry. In Russian (as in all the languages analysed in the present monograph) the conceptual category of expressivity is not expressed morphologically, it is not compulsory or obligatory. The Russian speaker does not categorize each finite form of the verb in terms of expressivity-non-expressivity. This, however, does not mean to say, that expressivity is something the Russian language is devoid of. It is achieved by different syntactical and lexical means together with different prosodic means in the oral representation of a given piece of poetry or prose.

The most widely applied means of rendering emphatic forms into Russian is the combination of lexical and syntactical means. Thus, for instance:

Do say something. - *Ну скажи же что-нибудь.*

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In the Russian translation an exclamatory sentence together with the intensifying particles "ну", "же" is introduced. Other lexical means introduced for the purpose are parenthetical words and intensifying adverbs. Thus, for instance:

I. This time Josephine did condescend to reply. На этот раз Жозефина снизошла, конечно, до ответа ("konečno" is a parenthetical word). 2. I wonder if she did understand the significance of those words. - Я подумала, действительно ли она понимала значение этих слов. ("Dejstvitel'no" is an intensifying adverb).

The Category of Voice

The category of voice approached superficially and formally might seem to a researcher to be less important and interesting than some other grammatical categories under investigation. This category is expressed morphologically both in Russian and in English. The grammatical meaning of the category of voice consists in indicating various relationships between the subject and the object of the action. Both in Russian and English this category is constituted by the opposition of two categorial forms - Passive and Active.

From what has been said it might be assumed to fol-

low that, as far as the category of voice is concerned, it can be said to be in one-to-one correspondence at least in two of the languages under investigation.

However, when we verified these *apriori* conclusions by reverting to the "etic" level the clear-cut, well-established picture of one-to-one correspondence of the categorial forms of voice in Russian and in English immediately fell to the ground. At least two main conclusions can be arrived at at the present stage of our contrastive study of the category of voice: 1. Passive constructions are incomparably more frequently used in English than in Russian; 2. English passive constructions are very rarely rendered into Russian by means of corresponding Russian passive forms of the verb; 3. English passive constructions are rendered into Russian by means of:

a) the finite form of the verb in the Active Voice within a personal sentence. Thus, for instance:

The door was opened by another footman in livery.

Дверь открыл другой лакей в ливрее.

b) the finite form of the verb in the Active Voice within an indefinite-personal sentence:

She knows you've been called home.

Она знает, что вас отзывают домой.

c) the finite form of the verb within an im-

personal sentence:

The front wall had been blown out.

Фасад словно ветром снесло.

We think that these facts can be accounted for in the following way: 1. In Russian the category of voice is closely connected with the category of transitivity-non-transitivity, that is, only transitive verbs are characterized by the category of voice, whereas in English both transitive and intransitive verbs share this category. 2. In Russian there are special widely applied syntactic means, namely - indefinite-personal and impersonal sentences, which most fully express the idea of the action being performed upon, aimed, directed at the object of the sentence. Thus, for instance:

You've been called home.

Вас отзывают домой.

If we change the above adduced authentic English sentence into "They have called you home", it certainly would acquire an impersonal meaning, but the idea of the action performed upon the object is much less clearly expressed as compared with the first sentence and its Russian equivalent ("Вас отзывают"). The difference between the Russian and English passive constructions becomes even more obvious, when the so-

called "prepositional phrases" (or prepositional passive constructions) are analysed. They are rendered into Russian almost solely by means of indefinite-impersonal sentences:

Your clothes will be looked after.

За вашей одеждой присмотрят.

It should be noted that in Russian the category of voice is also connected with the concept of reflexivity. That is why there are cases of rendering the English passive form by means of the finite form of the corresponding reflexive verb:

He had been accused of un-American activities.

Он обвинялся в антиамериканской деятельности.

The Category of Mood

The category of mood is a grammatical morphological category which expresses the relationship between what is being said and reality.

In English the category of mood is constituted by the opposition of five categorial forms: 1/ Indicative, 2/ Imperative, 3/ Subjunctive, 4/ Conditional, 5/ Suppositional. In Russian there are three categorial forms, in which this category is realized: 1/ Indicative, 2/ Imperative, 3/ Subjunctive.

Thus, in English there are two categorial forms of

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Mood which are not found in Russian - Conditional and Suppositional. It is interesting, therefore, to establish the means by which the forms of the Conditional Mood are rendered in Russian, or, in other words, to discover how the discrepancy existing on the emic level is, so to speak, "compensated" on the etic level of the two languages.

I. As the analysis of the material has shown, the Russian Subjunctive is widely used to express different oblique mood forms of the English language, including the forms of the Conditional. Thus, for instance:

I should'n say anything to Kathleen if I were you.

Я на вашем месте ничего не сказала бы Кэтлин.

If I did not write them down I should probably forget all about them. - Если бы я не записала их, то, вероятно, все позабыла бы.

It should be mentioned that when the verb "would" is used in the forms of the first person a specific problem arises: is "would" combined here with additional modal connotations or is it only the manifestation of the tendency which has already been realized in the Scottish, Irish and American variants of the English language? In other words, the problem can be formulated as follows: is the verb "would" in the form of

Conditional (when used with the first person) purely auxiliary or modal?

Be the above tendency what it may, we are nevertheless inclined to believe that "would" in the first person Conditional is always modal, or at least this has been found to be the case in the material under investigation. Thus, for instance:

If it was my business I wouldn't talk about it.

Were I fortunate enough to be Miss Prism's pupil, I would hang upon her lips.

This kind of modality is not expressed in Russian. That is why the last example is translated in the following way: Если бы мне посчастливилось быть ученицей Мисс Призм, я бы не отрывался от её уст.

II. Very often in order to reinforce the emotional colouring of the sentence the translator uses some other grammatical forms. Thus, the forms of oblique moods are rendered by means of the forms of Indicative Mood in order to make the sentence sound more categorical: I would strongly advise you...

Я очень рекомендую вам ...

This material was appended to chapter I because the present monograph is addressed mainly to foreign language teachers in whose hands as much concrete material as possible should be placed.

PART II

CATEGORIZATION IN MORPHOLOGY

Categorization in linguistics includes both the scientific process of discovering and defining the categories of language and the actual "dimensions" of linguistic phenomena. The two aspects are compatible because categories are not "*a priori* conceptions applied by the mind as frames to material supplied by the senses." They are reverberations in the human consciousness of objective reality, steps in the cognition of the material world. The philosophic categories - matter, motion, space, causality, etc., are of universal significance; they reflect properties and relationships common to all natural and social phenomena. The categories of particular sciences are reverberations of certain specific aspects of objective reality, which belong to the branch of science in question. They are the broadest and most general concepts within its scope, arrived at by rational scientific methods.

Morphology in the broad sense (or "morphemics") is concerned with all the varieties of "recurrent patterned partials" of a language, which are the ultimate units of its semantic level, bearing, as they do, no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other units of the level.[16] From this extensive domain the much narrower and much more clearly demarcated field of "grammatical morphology", defined as "the system of inflectional forms" - *sistema slovoizmenenija* - is assumed to be separable. "Grammatical" means: /a/ expressing a relational concept; /b/ one that is regularly reproduced - frequently recurring, standard, systematic; /c/ in expression - accessory, subservient, supplementary. Thus, for example, given the following bits of linguistic material - 1) *pantaloon*, 2) *lact-*, 3) *-ble*, 4) -t (shalt, etc.), and 5) -s (-z, -iz, third person singular), one will be quite sure /1/ and /2/ are not part of the system of inflectional forms, /4/ and /5/ - are, while /3/ is controversial: it may be assumed to express the categorial form of a variety of potential mood in a paradigm of non-finites, e.g. break-ing /-able/ broken. Besides, there is no intrinsic reason why the concept of category (or "categorization" as the case may be) should be confined to grammar - in

our case, to grammatical morphology. Theoretically speaking categorization is easily conceivable in "lexical morphology" as well; e.g. the lexico-semantic opposition of pairs like *write-rewrite*, *read-reread* which may quite plausibly be regarded as manifestations of the lexical category of "primarity-iteration". In practice, however, this is hardly feasible - certainly not before categorization of lexical semantics generally has made a more significant step forward.

The words of a language are the ultimate components of sentences, which could not be constructed if words did not fall into c l a s s e s (*klassy, razryady*). From the point of syntactical empiricism word-classes are often described as "functional" or "focus" ones. From a broader linguistic standpoint words of different classes are regarded as adapted to particular syntactic functions because such are the properties of the class in question; the class being set up or constituted by a given set of morphological grammatical categories.

Cognition is not a simple or straightforward process. Full understanding of the fundamental principles of a given sphere is attained gradually, some-

times after considerable time had been wasted in beating wrong tracks. This was the case with categorization in morphology, owing to the fact that word-classes were supposed to be exact counterparts of the general philosophic categories as conceived by Aristotle (quality, quantity, action, etc.).

The scientific view that linguistic categories are not *erstarrte* logical or psychological ones, but specific *Denkgewohnheiten* (to be accounted for by the cultural and historical background of the different speech communities) was formed comparatively recently. The unpredictability and imaginativeness of grammatical categories in different languages with their specific but always compulsory character are now clearly seen (Jakobson 1959). The welcome results of the new approach are found in the interesting new categorizations, unstinted by the rigid framework of metaphysical logic (Smirnitsky 1959, Jakobson 1957).

The new outlook has made possible a refinement of the class-membership of words. It has also brought it home to the linguist that all languages are "classifying languages" and thus did away with the presumption that all kinds of wayward and whimsical categorizations were the lot of "exotic" or "ethno-

graphic" languages, while the "cultural" languages enjoyed the special prerogative of adhering to the rational classification of logic (Whorf 1945, 1938).

Stupendous difficulties will have to be contented with, however, before the different kinds of "categories" now in more or less current use in linguistic science are properly sorted out by means of what might be described as meta-categorial investigation. The present chapter is based on the assumption that its author knows what a morphological category is. It goes without saying, however, that this knowledge will remain far from exact or complete so long as this comparatively narrow field is not clearly demarcated with respect to the broader expanses of reactances and cryptotypes or syntactical, morphosyntactical, lexicosyntactical, and conceptual categories. The "things" meant by the innumerable *Adjektiv-abstracta* in *-ost'*, for example, are the outcome of an often shrewd observation of linguistic facts (e.g. *kategorii različnosti*, *veščestvennosti*, *glagol'nosti* - Whorf's "verbation" - *konkretnosti*, *predmetnosti*, etc.). They would become a great asset if consistently explained and defined in scientific meta-categorial terms.

So far only the first step has been made, for

"categories" are still habitually confused with "classes", the term "categories" being too often used to describe not the g e n e r a l f o r m a l and s e m a n t i c p r o p e r t i e s which bring together words of various concrete-lexical meanings into the same "classes" or "sets" (klassy, razr'ady), but those classes and sets t h e m s e l v e That is why Fowler (1934:70) was quite right when he laid it down that "category" should be used by no one who is not prepared to state (1) that he does not mean "class", (2) that he knows the difference between the two.

In contrast to the almost hopeless tangle of approaches manifested in the innumerable definitions of the sentence , the definitions of the morphological category differ mainly in the prominence given to one of the three constituent parts: (1) the generalized meaning, (2) the paradigm, (also "formatives", "formal marks", etc.), (3) frequency, recurrence[17]. These three aspects may be assumed to cover the subject, in a general way. The following specific peculiarities of the categories in question must, however, be indicated more explicitly. The generalized (*obobšč'onnoje*) meaning, which is the content of a

morphological grammatical category depends for its realization on a special kind of linguistic relationship. The "concrete" ("material", *veščestvennoje*) meaning is conceivable as a direct and individual reference to extralinguistic reality. Thus, for example, *syringe*, *elk*, *thigh*, *colon* etc. can denote (designate, refer to, evoke) the things-meant, as it were, directly by themselves, while the content of formal elements can be realized only by means of a more or less intricate system of oppositions on the categorial level. Thus, for example, -s, -d, -t; -a (Russian *žena, doma*), etc., become inflections only as part of a paradigm, i.e. only as part of a system of inflectional forms, by which the categorial forms of a given set of morphological grammatical categories is expressed. In contrast with the formal or generalized ones, the "concrete" meanings can function, as it were, "one by one", because their semantics is based on individual reference.

Let us now try to formulate certain rules or methods by applying which the morphological grammatical categories can be discovered and described[18].

I. A morphological grammatical category is constituted by the opposition of no less than two inflectional forms - its "categorial" forms. Thus,

for instance, in Modern English the category of case is constituted by the opposition of the categorial forms of the Common and the Possessive Cases; the category of tense - of the categorial forms of the present, past and future; the category of taxis - of the categorial forms of perfect and non-perfect, etc.

2. The opposition of no less than two categorial forms is the only possible realization of a morphological grammatical category, the only form of its existence[19]. In other words, a grammatical category exists in its categorial forms, by means of them, through them. It is therefore misleading to use the term "category" to denote its particular manifestations, e.g. speak of "the category of the Common Case" or "the category of the Past Tense"[20].

The morphological grammatical categories are historical categories; their number and characteristics change in the course of time. Thus, for instance, if the "Saxon genetive" ceased to exist as an inflectional form, this would destroy not only the categorial form of the Possessive Case, but also the category of case in Modern English, as a whole. Incidentally, this would be a not unexpected outcome of a devolution: the category of case in English has

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been steadily losing ground for about a 1000 years. In contrast to the noun, the verb in English tends to become categorially "overdetermined" owing to the steady increase in the number and variety of its categories;[21] in the course of time it developed the category of aspect (constituted by the opposition of the categorial forms of the continuous and those of the non-continuous), the category of taxis, etc.

4. A morphological grammatical category is confined to the categorial forms by which it is constituted, i.e. it cannot cover or include all the inflectional forms of a word. When certain properties are manifested by all the inflectional forms of a word, they constitute a l e x i c o - g r a m m a t i c a l category. This is the case of gender of nouns in Russian, for example - as against gender in adjectives, which is a grammatical category, constituted by the opposition of the categorial forms of masculine, feminine, and neuter genders.

5. Every inflectional form contains (carries, expresses, manifests) at least one categorial form, but it can also comprise several and thus cater, on the expression plane, for several morphological grammatical categories. Thus in Modern English the categorial forms of third person, present tense, indicative

mood, singular number and active voice must be assumed to find "expression" in one inflectional form, i.e. -s, -z, -iz[22].

The exact nature of the subtle and intricate morphological mechanism has not yet been fully explained. It is tolerably clear, however, that the "global" character of inflectional forms cannot be equated with "grammatical homonymy". The latter denotes simply incompatibility on the semantic level and consequently a more or less mechanical multiplication (cutting up) of a unit of the expression plane as, for example, for $-s^1$ as in <u>speaks</u> and $-s^2$ as in <u>spokes</u>. Although the unit of expression is multiplied or expanded through paradigmatic dependences both in the case -s: <u>speaks</u> / -s: <u>spokes</u> and that of -s: <u>speaks</u> - categorial form of person, present tense, indicative mood, singular number and active voice - in the latter case it is not grammatical homonymy but a special kind of syncretism .

But what are the underlying extralinguistic facts of linguistic categorization? As far as verbal categories are concerned, we are lucky to be able to turn to Roman Jakobson's well-known "Shifters, Verbal Categories, and the Russian Verb", in which a very successful attempt has been made to classify verbal

categories as reflecting the objective reality of the underlying speech event.

The main categories of the latter are: " 1) speech itself $^{(s)}$, and its topic, the narrated matter $^{(n)}$, 2) the event itself (E), and any of its participants (P), whether "performer" or " undergoer".

Consequently four items are to be distinguished: a narrated event (E^n), a speech event (E^s), a participant of the narrated event (P^n), and a participant of the speech event (P^s), whether addresser or addressee".

According to R. Jakobson, all verbal categories are classified into categories which presuppose the participant of the event and those which do not do so. The former either characterize the participants (P^n) or their connection with the narrated event ($P^n E^n$), the latter deal with either one narrated event (E^n) or with its relationship to another event ($E^n E^n$).

The categories which characterize only the event (E^n) or its participants (P^n) are then called "Designators", while those which characterize (E^n) or (P^n) in their relation to another narrated event ($E^n E^n$ or $P^n E^n$) are termed "Connectors".

Designators characterize the narrated item either

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qualitatively or quantitatively and are thus, subdivided into "Qualifiers" and "Quantifiers".
All the categories, characterizing the narrated event or its participants may be either related or not related with the speech event. The former are termed "Shifters", while the latter are "Non-Shifters".

The above distinctions are directly relevant to the present research, for they give a [illegible] slant to the definition of the categories of Aspect, Tense, and Taxis.

We adduce Jakobson's formulation in full;
" E^n) Aspect characterizes the narrated event itself without involving its participants and without reference to the speech event;
E^n E^s) Tense characterizes the narrated event with reference to the speech event. Thus the preterit informs us that the narrated event is anterior to the speech event. E^n E^n) Taxis characterizes the narrated event in relation to another narrated event and without reference to the speech event".

In this connection the reader should also be referred to the following sources[23/].

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PART III

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS WITHIN A SUBSYSTEM OF MORPHOLOGICAL GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE VERB

The large complex of grammatical categories which constitute the verb as a separate part of speech may be subdivided into what may be (and often is) described as "subsystems".

One of the generally recognized ones is the "subsystem" which comprises the three interconnected categories of Tense, Taxis, and Aspect. These will be taken up in the same order in what follows and discussed both theoretically and as manifested in the five languages under investigation.

It should be borne in mind that systematic contrastive analysis along the lines indicated in the preceding pages of the present volume is a very difficult task. It may even happen that the first steps we are now setting out to make in this direction may not be entirely successful, but we should be quite satisfied with the outcome of our research if we succeeded in explaining with sufficient clarity the principles and methods of

research adopted by us.

The whole aim of contrastive analysis is to show what the languages have in common and where they differ, the actual investigation evolving against the background of certain conceptual categories. The g r a m m a t i c a l m o r p h o l o g i c a l categories in which these conceptual categories either are or are not realized are thus founded on the underlying concepts. Although we may begin by taking the system of one language as the starting point, we must always bear in mind that this particular system of grammatical categories is something specific, something the particular language has got as a form or forms characteristically its own. It is therefore essential that we should always remember the principle of contrastive studies - the fact that it is the conceptual, notional category that is the real starting point. Obviously, one of the languages must be singled out and used as a "frame of reference". We may even go so far as to say that contrastive analysis without an assumed frame of reference is impossible in principle.

But when we begin to look at the material of other languages through the prism of the particular frame of reference, we must be prepared to face failure in the

sense that we may not succeed in actually establishing the complete system of grammatical categories in the other languages, that is - fail to discover the actual oppositions which constitute these grammatical categories. We may find ourselves in a position where, at least for a time, we shall have to satisfy ourselves with more or less approximate solutions in the sense that we shall be paving the way for a future climax, as it were, where actual oppositions will be completely clear (or at least reasonably well established and generally accepted).

Thus, in the present study, as is seen from what has been said above, we begin by systematically describing the basic notional categories and the grammatical morphological categories taking the system of the English language as our frame of reference. The other four languages are then viewed through the prism of a given inventory of categories. Those peculiarities of structure which are characteristic of the latter, acquire in this way, much greater prominence.

We begin with the category of tense, then proceed to the category of taxis and wind up with the category of aspect.

Chapter I

The Category of Tense

Tense is a grammatical category by means of which a certain "time" relationship (vremennoje otnošenije) is established between the process, which is denoted by the particular form of the verb, and the moment of speaking. The category of tense in Modern English is constituted by the opposition of three categorial forms: Present, Past and Future. The forms of the present tense are used to indicate that the action which is expressed by the verb is "coterminous" with the moment of speaking, encompasses it.

Although this grammatical meaning is contained in the following sentences He works at the factory and He is working at the factory - it does not follow that there are two "present tenses" or two categorial forms of the present tense. In these grammatical forms, the categorial form of "present tense" is combined ("made into one bundle") with the categorial form of aspect.

If we were now to take these grammatical forms, (looking at them at the moment only through the prism of the "present tense meaning") and tried to compare

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them with the other languages under investigation we would probably begin with a study of contexts which correspond to the English forms. The idea, then, of the "categorial" approach consists in the following. Since two "present tenses" cannot exist, in the nature of things, it is clear that in these grammatical forms the categorial form of present is intertwined with another kind of categorial form.

Obviously, then, the main point is to find a method of analysis which will enable the researcher consistently to unwind all the different threads and strains which are "intertwined" in a grammatical form of this kind. In other words, we must now show that "I work" and "I am working" are identical in so far as tense is concerned, but they differ in aspect.

Our aim now is to apply what has just been propounded to the other languages. We shall begin with the Russian language.

The categorial form of the PRESENT TENSE in Russian is manifested in only one grammatical form of the imperfective aspect . From the point of view of the contrastive grammar we can make a very important state-

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ment in this connection: if the Russian present tense, (the categorial form of the present tense) is compared with the categorial form of the present tense in English, at least two things become apparent: first of all, in the English language the same grammatical form comprises not only a variety of other categorial forms, but also the categorial form of aspect. It should be noted in this connection, that the category of aspect in Russian is extremely involved. In Russian we do not find a clear-cut grammatical opposition of the kind: "I work" - "I am working" because in the present tense in Russian there is no opposition between the perfective and the imperfective aspects. In other words, a clear grammatical opposition on the aspect line is inexpressible in Russian.

If we turn to the Georgian language we immediately observe that there exists a great similarity between the present tense in Russian and in Georgian. There is only one grammatical form in Georgian, denoting an action as coterminous with the moment of speaking. The aspectual opposition is inexpressible in Georgian either - as far as the present tense is concerned. The action is always viewed as developing, progressing, non-complete.

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If we turn to our frame of reference, i.e. the English form, the Georgian grammatical form of the present tense could be said to be in partial correspondence with Present Continuous, as far as its grammatical meaning is concerned. Thus, the equivalent of the English "I am writing" is ვ ვ ვ ვ ვ

When we approach the Turkoman language the situation becomes extremely involved. Here, too, we begin with the grammatical forms and find that in Turkoman there are at least three grammatical forms, which according to the traditional metalanguage of Turkoman grammar are called: 1/ General Present, 2/ Concrete Present, 3/ Suppositional Present.

According to our method, we now turn to the task of finding what the actual content (or meaning) is, always bearing in mind our well-established frame of reference - that is, the corresponding subsystem of the English language. It is our firm belief that we are perfectly justified in adopting both this frame of reference and the accompanying metalanguage.

The so-called "General Present" of Turkoman is a grammatical form, which expresses the meaning of the present tense in the sense that it denotes an action which is coterminous with the moment of speaking

while the information which is passed on to a listener or a reader by means of this grammatical form is of a most general character. Thus, for instance: Ол оңат ишлейәр- "He (generally) works well". It would be of great help to the Turkoman learner of English if the term "general present" were substituted by the more generally accepted and for that reason the more convenient term "Present Indefinite", because we find a definite correspondence, we might even say - identity of the grammatical meaning in the above mentioned English and Turkoman forms.

In the form of the so-called "Concrete Present" we observe the intertwining of the categorial forms of the present tense and of that of the continuous aspect, because it denotes an action in progress, as taking place before our eyes. It is an analytical form with the exception of four verbs which deviate from the norm and express the same grammatical meaning synthetically.

As far as the so-called "Suppositional Present" is concerned the situation is completely different from what we have seen in the above cases, because in the system which we have taken as the starting point, we do not find a suppositional form of the present.

In the plan of the present book oblique modality is not included. We are confining our attention to indicative or direct modality only, although, it goes without saying, that oblique modality could make a very interesting subject for contrastive study of, for instance, such forms as the forms of the English Subjunctive, Conditional and Suppositional Moods, on the one hand, and the different oblique moods, on the other, in the languages under consideration.

As far as the Ossetic language is concerned we also find two forms which can be said to be in correspondance with the English forms of Present Indefinite and Present Continuous. The continuous aspect is expressed by an analytical form of the verb: thus, for instance: Æз кусгæ кæнын - I am working. The non-continuous aspect is expressed synthetically and can be regarded as identical with Present Indefinite in its grammatical meaning. But it can also denote an action which is "taking place before your eyes", that is - a concrete action (in the same way as the English Present Continuous can).

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As far as the forms of the PAST TENSE are concerned the same will apply here too. Our starting point is one concept, one grammatical notion of the past tense: the past tense denotes an action which precedes the moment of speaking. Just as was the case with the Present tense, the grammatical form of the past tense is complicated by the fact that over and above the grammatical meaning of the past tense there comes the categorial form of aspect.

The grammatical meaning of the past tense is expressed by the following two grammatical forms: I/ Past Indefinite (He worked at the factory) and 2/Past Continuous (He was working at the factory).

In the grammatical form of Past Indefinite the meaning of the past tense is manifested most clearly, because as far as aspect is concerned it is a non-marked member of the aspectual opposition. Thus, the meaning of the past tense dominates in this grammatical form. In the Past Continuous form the past tense is combined with the continuous aspect.

Turning to the Turkoman language we again begin by listing those grammatical forms in which the meaning of the past tense is assumed to be included. There

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is a great variety of forms which are used to denote the past tense in this language. To make things less complicated we shall try to apply one and the same metalanguage while analysing the English and the Turkoman grammatical forms, always remembering that we are interested in the actual grammatical content of those forms and not their traditional names. If the content of some grammatical forms happens to coincide, there is no reason why different terms should be used to denote one and the same grammatical phenomenon. Unfortunately, not infrequently, the grammarian's attention is confined to the "expression plane", the morphological grammatical forms and not the grammatical categorizations, not the c a t e g o r i a l forms. That is why both the classifications and the metalanguage are so often unsatisfactory.

The forms traditionally listed in Turkoman grammars as forms of the past tense are the following: I/ "Indefinite Imperfect", 2/ "Definite Imperfect", 3/ "Categorical Past", 4/ "Subjective Past", 5/ "Intentional Past", 6/ "Descriptive Indefinite Past", 7/ "Plusquamperfect".

Having analysed this material we can arrive at

some preliminary conclusions concerning the correspondences of the English and Turkoman forms. Thus, the forms, conventionally called in the Turkoman grammar "Indefinite Imperfect" and "Definite Imperfect", on the one hand, and the so-called "Categorical Past", on the other, form a kind of opposition, which is similar to that of Past Continuous-Past Indefinite. In other words, the grammatical meaning of "Categorical Past" is very close to that of Past Indefinite, whereas the forms of "Indefinite" and "Definite" Imperfect" both denote "action in process" or in progress. Thus, they are closer in their meaning to Past Continuous.

The next three forms - Subjective Past, Intentional Past and Descriptive Indefinite Past express different intrinsic meanings connected with the attitude of the speaker to what is being said. In other words, in these grammatical forms tense is intertwined with modality. It would therefore require a special contrastive study of modality, as well as of the means of expressing modality in different languages, to unravel all the categorial forms contained in those grammatical forms. As has already been explained above in the

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present research we can only state that such forms do exist in Turkoman, but we have nothing to contrast them with since the notional category of modality is not included in the present contrastive study.

As far as "Plusquamperfect" is concerned, it will be considered later when we turn to "Taxis".

In the Ossetic language there exist two grammatical forms which denote an action preceding the moment of speaking, i.e. the grammatical forms of the verb including the categorial form of the past tense. The first grammatical form which can be easily correlated or compared with the English Past Indefinite form is a synthetical one in which the content, the grammatical meaning of the Past tense is most obvious, because it is not intertwined with any taxis or aspectual characteristics; otherwise stated , it is a non-marked member of aspectual and taxis oppositions. The second grammatical form is an analytical form denoting "action in process" - in other words - the grammatical form corresponding to the Past Continuous form. Thus, for instance: Æз кусгæ кодтон - I was working.

In Russian, as has been the case with the Present tense, there is paucity of forms - two grammatical

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forms of the Past tense, which differ on the aspectual line. Thus, for instance: прочитал - прочитывал, написал - писал. But taking into consideration the peculiarity of the Russian category of aspect we can speak of a purely grammatical opposition of the above mentioned grammatical forms of the past tense only when the verbs are lexically identical which is not very often the case, because a pure grammatical aspectual correlation within the system of the Russian verb is rather seldom observed.

In Georgian, again, as has been the case with the Present tense, the situation is very much the same as in Russian. There are two main grammatical forms of the past tense - that is perfective and imperfective forms. Thus, for instance, if we take the above adduced Russian examples they will have identical forms from the point of view of grammatical content in Georgian:

ვწერდი - писал
დავწერდი - написал

There is one more grammatical form denoting an action in the past, the results of which are obvious or clearly observed at the moment of speaking. The

time of action is either not indicated at all or indicated by means of the adverbs of "indefinite time", that is, *ever*, *never*, *once*, *lately* etc. Thus, the form მიუწერია-დაუწერია tells the reader (or listener) that something that has been written can be regarded as the result of some past action, the result of which bears on the present situation.

In other words, this form can be easily compared with the Present Perfect form, though, of course, there is no exact one-to-one correspondence between them. There are two variants of the above mentioned form, those of the Perfective and the imperfective aspects.

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As far as the categorial forms of the FUTURE TENSE are concerned there are all kinds of serious theoretical difficulties which are created not only by the fact that the categorial form of the future is always expressed by an analytical grammatical form in English (and sometimes in the other languages under investigation) , but also by all kinds of intrinsic factors of content, of meaning. Thus, between the future, on the one hand, and the present and the past, on the other, there is a very great difference which consists in the following: all future statements are always connected with a certain oblique modality in contrast with the present and the past which are quite naturally used with "directly modal" or indicative meaning. For the future it is always possible to assume the existence of a certain shade of modality of supposition and possibility. That is why the basic meaning of the future - to denote an action which takes place after the moment of speaking - is to a certain extent obscured. Morphologically (that is to say in terms of grammatical forms) the categorial form of the future tense is expressed in the following way in different languages.

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In English we have the following grammatical forms denoting the future tense: I/ Future Indefinite and 2/ Future Continuous. These forms are identical in the sense that they both denote an action which is supposed to take place after the moment of speaking. But though Future Indefinite and Future Continuous coincide in tense, they differ in aspect.

In Russian there are two grammatical forms denoting an action which takes place after the moment of speaking. That is, the synthetical and the analytical forms of the future tense, which differ as far as aspect is concerned. The synthetical form is a form of the perfective aspect while the analytical - of the imperfective aspect. Thus, for instance:

напишу - буду писать.

In the Turkoman language the grammatical forms of the future tense are closely intertwined with modality, which again proves what has been already said about the categorial form of the future tense in general. The traditional terms denoting the Turkoman forms are "Categorical Future" and "Non-Categorical Future". Bearing in mind our frame of reference - in our case - the source system of categories of the English verb - we arrive at the conclusion that the

so-called "non-categorical future" is very close in its grammatical meaning to the English Future Indefinite, whereas "categorical future" can be correlated with English word-combinations, containing the modal "shall" like in, for instance:
You shall do it; thou shalt not steal etc.
But as has already been said, the forms expressing oblique modality are not included in the present research, because it would require a separate study of the subject of Modality. What we are trying to achieve is to present a more or less unified picture of what really does exist in the languages under analysis as far as the three paramount categories of the verb are concerned. Our aim is to show that although the names are different, the meaning is very often the same or at least compatible. The terms traditionally used to draw attention to the fact of certain lexical and modal differences in the different languages often turn out to be roughly synonymous. But there are always divergences for there exists no human language with perfect order or perfect regularity.

In the Ossetic language there are two grammatical forms expressing the future tense. The first is identical in its meaning with Future Indefinite.

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It only denotes a fact which will occur in the future, that is - after the moment of speaking. As for the second form, it corresponds to Future Continuous. Thus, for instance: Әз кыска кәндзынан - I shall be working.

In Georgian the situation is very much the same. There is one synthetical form of the future tense. The aspectual differentiation is not manifested in the grammatical form denoting the future tense. The forms of the future tense are always those of Perfective aspect: მოვბეჭდი.

Thus, the analysis given above proves again that we deal with only one categorial form of Present, Past and Future which is combined, brought together with other categorial forms within one and the same grammatical form.

Chapter II

The Category of Taxis

The category of taxis is constituted in English by the opposition of the categorial forms of simultaneity and anteriority, which are expressed in this language by the opposition of the non-perfect and perfect grammatical forms, or the perfect and non-perfect forms of the verb. The grammatical meaning which is expressed by the categorial opposition of these forms is the realization of a process before the time mentioned, while the grammatical meaning of the Past tense is merely the realization of a certain process before the moment of speaking. Thus, for instance: "When he was gone, my mother asked me all about the day I had had and what they had said and done". The form "asked" is the categorial form of the Past tense, because the action is viewed with respect to the moment of speaking, while the forms "had had" and "had said" are categorial forms of anteriority, used to denote an action occurring before a past moment, before a point of time that is already past. Thus, the form "asked" becomes the non-marked member of the opposition in the expression of the category of taxis.

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The difference in the grammatical meanings of the categorial forms of anteriority-simultaneity is found both in the predicative and non-predicative forms of the verb. The predicative forms which constitute this grammatical category are: Past Perfect -Past Indefinite, Future Perfect-Future Indefinite. In the opposition Future Perfect-Future Indefinite the category of taxis is more clearly marked than in the opposition Past Perfect-Past Indefinite, for Future Perfect is "a form of the past with respect to the future", that is, to a certain moment or point of time in the future. The meaning of the perfect form in this case is precedence, anteriority with reference to the content of the utterance. In other words, in the grammatical form of perfect the following two characteristics must be kept clearly apart - the form of the future tense as placed on the "time line" (or as a part of the category of tense) and the "future-preceding" or "future-anterior" which is placed or occurs on the "line" of the category of taxis". Thus, for instance: "He will have gone before the boat docks in". The form "will have gone" expresses anteriority with respect to the form "docks". But from the point of view of the category of tense this

is a form of the future.

The Past Perfect form is "past" with respect to the moment of speaking and at the same time anterior with respect to a certain moment viewed through the prism of the content of the utterance. In other words, this grammatical form expresses two different meanings: one is the categorial meaning of "past tense" and the other - the categorial meaning of anteriority.

Still more clearly the category of taxis is expressed by non-predicative forms of the verb, that is, by the Perfect Infinitive, Perfect Gerund and Perfect Participle. In these forms the category of taxis appears in its purest form without any "accumulations" or "superpositions" of any other categorial characteristics. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

1. When he had read the book, he returned it to the library.

2. Having read the book, he returned it to the library.

The grammatical form "had read" expresses both the category of anteriority and that of the past tense. (As far as the rest of the categorial meanings of this form is concerned, such as Voice, Mood etc. these are

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not considered here).

In addition to what has been said above the categorial form of anteriority can be combined with the categorial form of the continuous aspect, as, for instance, in "had been reading", where the category of taxis is also intertwined with the categorial forms of the continuous aspect. We see here the realization of the same principle. One grammatical form can "carry" or "express" (and does carry and express) two or more categorial forms. The task of the researcher consists, therefore, in "dissecting", as it were, the grammatical form in question to show what are the different categories which are accumulated in it or "superimposed" upon each other in it. This is a point to be brought home to our readers. That is one of the main reasons why the study of natural human languages is so difficult. The fact is that in natural human languages there is no one-to-one correspondence between the form and the content. The law of the sign according to which the expression and the content planes must be in strict one-to-one correspondence in natural human languages is more often broken than not.

As far as morphology is concerned the main trouble has always been the inability of some writers to distin-

guish the "immediately observed", ("nabl'udajemyje") grammatical forms, the actual combinations of sounds and words which make up a grammatical form, and the complex of different grammatical meanings and grammatical relationships which are contained in one piece of linguistic expression. This, roughly, is the problem. Obviously, contrastive analysis cannot be done if the researcher confines himself (or herself) to superficial juxtapositions of the bundles of different grammatical relationships, categorizations and so on in different languages, without going more deeply into the system of units on the c o n t e n t p l a n e . Scientifically this is impracticable, impossible.

After this digression let us return to our material. What has been said about the Perfect Participle form applies also to the Perfect Infinitive and the Perfect Gerund forms. Thus , for instance:

1. Everything seemed to have changed since her swim in the pool.
2. He did not remember ever having been in that room.

The grammatical meaning of the category of taxis, that is, the opposition of simultaneity-anteriority

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is clearly observed in perfect non-predicative forms as opposed to the corresponding predicative forms in the above adduced sentences.

These are the remarks we thought it necessary to make in connection with the grammatical category of taxis in modern English.

In Russian the category of taxis has no grammatical expression in the finite forms of the verb. The category of taxis can be expressed only by the perfective adverbial participle (dejepričastije). Thus, for instance: *Прочитав книгу, он вернул её в библиотеку.*

The forms "*прочитав*" and "having read" are mutually adequate in the sense that the Russian form expresses anteriority. It is "ante-past", it is a form of "pre" or "ante" past with respect to the finite form of the verb, expressed here by the form "*вернул*". It expresses not only the perfective aspect and "past tense", but also anteriority expressed by the relationship of the two actions; otherwise stated it expresses the relationship between the two actions in terms of simultaneity-antericrity.

In the Ossetic language the grammatical morphological category of taxis does not exist in so far as predicative or finite forms of the verb are concerned. The category of taxis is only expressed in the forms of the perfective adverbial participle which is used in the Ossetic language to denote the "supplementary" action expressed by the predicate. Thus, for instance: Горæтæй æрцæугæйæ ме'мбалмæ бæуадтæн. –

Having come from the town I called on my friend.

As far as the Turkoman language is concerned at the present state of our research and owing to the involved metalanguage of traditional Turkoman Grammars we are not in a position to say what the actual state of affairs in that language is. In other words, we shall be able to decide whether in the Turkoman language the grammatical morphological category of taxis exists or not only when our research has been completed. We shall also have to understand the reason why the metalanguage of Turkoman grammar is not based on the concept of categorial opposition, but on an altogether different principle. At the same time our task consists in contrasting the Turkoman system with the four other systems, where the categorial

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approach has already found a sufficiently clear expression. We have no other way but to try and effect categorial analysis for Turkoman as well. It goes without saying that a contrastive study becomes impossible unless we try and see what are the possibilities of somehow modifying a given metalanguage if necessary and, most important, trying to apply to the Turkoman material the principle which consists in distinguishing very clearly between the grammatical morphological forms, on the one hand, and the morphological categories and their categorial forms, on the other. That is why as far as the Turkoman language is concerned we begin by stating that the grammatical meaning, the content, the idea of Taxis or the idea of simultaneity-anteriority of actions, the idea of placing the actions on a certain line, with respect to the moment of speaking, does exist in Turkoman. First of all, there is in Turkoman a well-known predicative grammatical form traditionally called Plusquamperfect. Thus, for instance: Артык шэхерде озал хем болупдыр - Артык и прежде бывал в городе. The adverbial participle is used within an adverbial participle phrase in simple extended sentences. Thus, for instance: Ол ишини гутарып де гайтды

lends itself to direct and simple translation into Окончив работу, он пошел домой.

Although the category of taxis is by no means excluded from predicative forms, it is the non-predicative or non-finite forms in which the expression of taxis is most clearly manifested.

In Georgian the category of taxis does not exist as a separate morphological grammatical category. The notional category of simultaneity-anteriority is expressed in the language by different grammatical and lexical means. The action which preceded another action or the time mentioned in the past is usually expressed by the past tense form of the perfective aspect in combination with different conjunctions of time such as მანამ , მანამდე (before), სანამ (ვრ), ვიდრე (ვრ) (not yet, before), მას შემდეგ-მას (since, after) etc.

The meaning of anteriority can be expressed in Georgian by past and future participles. Thus, for instance: სტუდენტმა მოიტანა წაკითხული წიგნი - The student brought the book which he had already read. The participle წაკითხული expresses the action which preceded the action denoted by the finite form of the verb მოიტანა (brought).

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Lastly, the anteriority can be expressed in Georgian in a purely lexical way, i.e., by means of a noun in the Possessive Case in combination with the adverb შემდეგ (after). Thus, for instance:
დასვენების შემდეგ - after having rest.

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Chapter III

The Category of Aspect

The relationship between the Continuous and Non-Continuous forms has already been touched upon above. It has also been explained that the difference between these forms is one of aspect. We are quite certain that when we contrast or compare categories which are, as such, common to different languages, it is most important to remember that they have their own peculiarities and that these peculiarities make contrasting basically similar phenomena in different languages quite a complicated task. Thus, for instance, the Nominative Case in Latin does not always correspond to the Nominative Case in Russian in spite of the fact that the basic meaning of the category of case in the two languages is in principle identical.

Thus, in English the category of aspect is constituted by the opposition of categorial forms of the Non-Continuous and Continuous Aspects. The form of the continuous aspect draws attention or concentrates the speaker's attention on the process itself, on the

action as process in its development, while the form of the non-continuous aspect views the action in its completion, as something that is complete in itself. The category of aspect in English is morphologically expressed in the opposition of the following forms:

Continuous	-	Non-Continuous
Past Continuous	-	Past Indefinite
Present Continuous	-	Present Indefinite
Future Continuous	-	Future Indefinite.

As has already been explained above, the situation in Russian is much more complex. When we investigate the aspectual oppositions in Russian we must begin by very clearly distinguishing between the grammatical meaning of aspect proper from the l e x i c a l meaning of a given particular verb. It follows that we can understand the nature of the grammatical aspectual oppositions or differences only if we concentrate first on those cases where the aspectual meaning is expressed not by means of the prefix as for instance - "*делать - сделать*", "*доделать - доделывать*" (because the prefix always introduces certain additional lexical meanings) but by means of a completely grammaticalized suffix as in, for instance, "*получить - получать*", "*объяснить -*

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объяснять", "открыть-открывать".

A consideration of pairs of this kind which are aspectually distinct shows that aspectual differences in themselves do not denote any actual or real difference in the nature of the action denoted by these verbs: the different aspectual forms of the verbs in question denote actions which are identical in their content both quantitatively and qualitatively. Thus, it would be quite impossible to say that "встречать" or "решать" is different from "встретить" or "решить" because the content of the process is different. On the contrary, the identity of the lexical content in cases of this kind points clearly to the difference being aspectual. The nature of the latter consists in putting into prominence one of the "aspects" of the action. When we use imperfective forms, we concentrate on the action itself, on its development in time, on the process as such, while in the case of the Perfective aspect the action is viewed in the fullness of its content, as something that is complete in itself. Thus, for instance, "Я встречал брата и поэтому приехал поздно" and "Я встретил брата и поэтому приехал поздно".

This is the basic difference between the two

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aspects. And this is what the opposition of the two categorial forms of aspect is called upon to express.

As everywhere else the grammatical meanings are intimately combined with other ones: there are always additional shades of meaningful distinction, certain semantic "superpositions". Thus, for instance, if we take the Russian perfective aspect we shall find that the connotation of finality or non-finality often depends on the lexical meaning of the verb.

This is systematically explained by the division of verbs into terminative and durative ones. There is also the additional meaning, the connotation of the result of the action - (rezul'tativnost' - nerezul'tativnost'), which again is quite often expressed in these forms. The point then consists in deciding whether we have a reliable basis for our contrastive studies in the field of grammatical categories, whether we are able to distinguish quite clearly the basic grammatical and the concomitant lexical meanings which are expressed not only by the opposition of the aspectual meanings as such in the grammatical form proper, but by all kinds of concomitant lexical meanings which are attached to a certain verb.

In Ossetic the aspectual opposition is constituted by perfective-imperfective aspect. The main means of distinguishing perfective and imperfective are verbal prefixes. The verbs with these verbal prefixes acquire the grammatical meaning of the perfective aspect only in grammatical forms denoting the future and the past. Thus, for instance: "рацыдтан - I came out", "рацаудзынан - I'll come out", "фыссын - писать", "ныфыссын - написать", "кусын - работать", "бакусын - заработать".

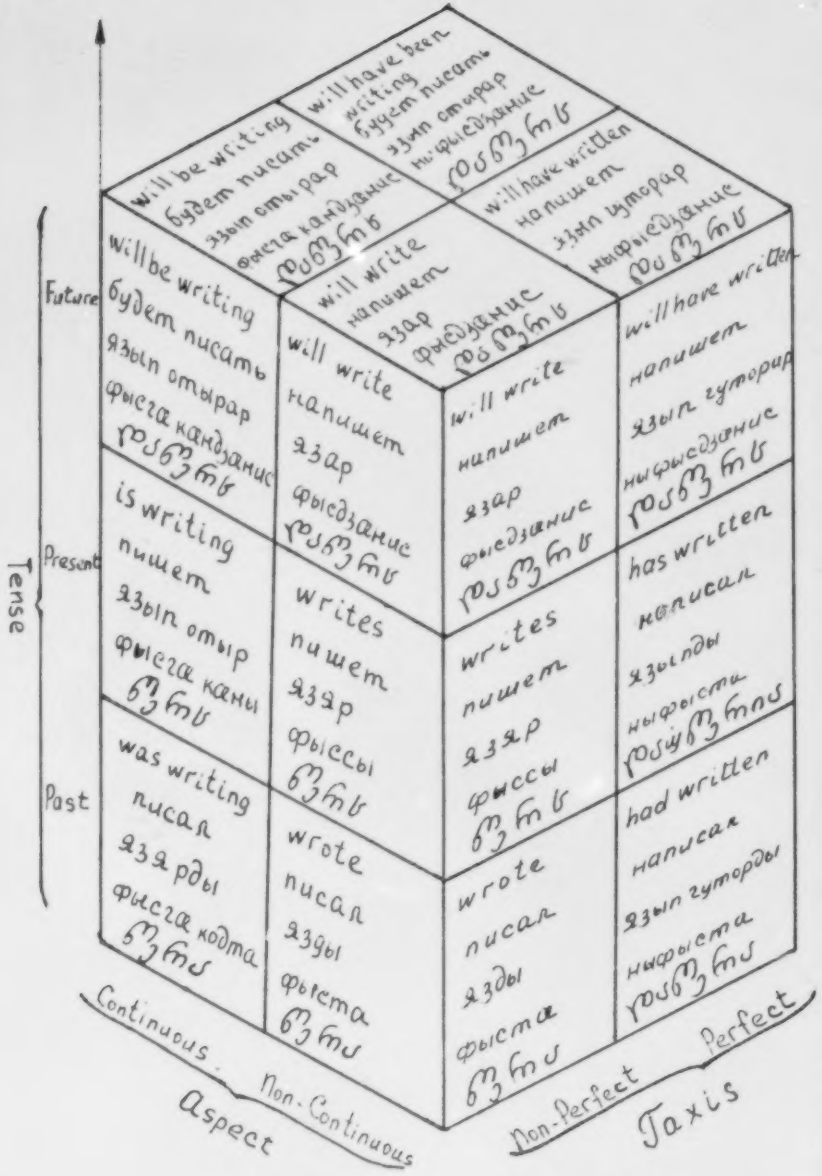
In Georgian the aspectual opposition is very much the same as in Russian and Ossetic. The category of aspect is constituted by the opposition of perfective-imperfective aspect, the former being distinguished from the latter by verbal prefixes. Thus, for instance:

ვწერ - დავწერ.

In the Turkoman language the opposition of categorial forms of the category of aspect is expressed analytically, i.e. by means of auxiliary verbs: дурмак (стоять), отурмак (сидеть), ятмак (лежать), йоремек (ходить), which together with the notional verb in the form of adverbial participle (deje-

pričastije), express the state of a subject: "I work - Мен ишлейәрин ", "I am working - Мен ишлән отырын "; "I read - Мен окаярын ", "I am reading - Мен окап отырын"; "I write - Мен язярын ", "I am writing - Мен язып дурын ".

The auxiliary verbs mentioned above form the continuous aspect synthetically by means of a quantitative and qualitative change of vowels: "I lie on the sofa - Мен диванда ятярын", "I am lying on the sofa - Мен диванда ятырын," "I sit - Мен отурярын", "I am sitting - Мен отырын". Besides the continuous aspect can be expressed synthetically where the forms of verbs in both aspects coincide but they differ in the context by means of adverbial words. Thus, for instance: "I read newspaper every day - Мен газет хер гүн окаярын ", "I am reading it now - Мен оны хәзир окаярын", "I write letters well - Мен хат оңат язярын ", "I am writing it now - Мен оны хәзир язярын ".


Tense
Future
Present
Past
Aspect
Continuous
Non-Continuous
Taxis
Non-Perfect
Perfect
will be writing
будем писать
язын отырар
фыста кандзанис
will write
напишем
язар
фыедзанис
will have been writing
будем писать
язын отырар
ныфыедзынис
will have written
напишем
язын утырар
ныфыедзынис
is writing
пишем
язын отыр
фыста кани
writes
пишем
язар
фыссы
has written
написал
язылды
ныфыста
was writing
писал
язарды
фыста кодта
wrote
писал
язды
фыста
had written
написал
язын гуторды
ныфыста

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FOOTNOTES

I/. The term "contrastive linguistics" is used here in reference to the "n-plets" - i.e. doublets, triplets etc. now in use, or as the "descriptor" representing them all. These are (to name only a few) "analytic comparison of languages", "comparative descriptive linguistics", "confronting-constructive description", "differential linguistics", etc. (Cf. Hamp 1968, Akhmanova 1970). In the absence of agreement of what it actually is it is difficult to judge of the relative merit of the different names (there is a lot in a name when the name is a term, for the latter best serves its purpose when it is "definitional", i.e. motivated).

2/. From this point of view "contrastive linguistics" is a misnomer, for "contrastive" lays stress on difference. Thus, for example, Hamp (1968, p. 139): "the juxtaposing of accounts of two languages and the extraction of certain observations of difference"; Moulton (1962:3): we call it a "contrastive" analysis because it is only the actual points of contrast which need concern us ... A teaching problem arises only where corresponding sounds

in the two languages contrast with one another ... Although the "difference" idea does suit some of the acceptations, it is the s i m i l a r i t i e s that should be considered first, for otherwise "the extraction of observation of difference" would hardly be feasible. The accent on s i m i l a r i t i e s has been placed by a number of writers. Thus: "...the thesis that the content of a language-teaching syllabus is to be based chiefly on those differences appears to deny the possibility of linguistic universals, the existence of which is indicated by the fact that some errors and difficulties are wide-spread" (Lee, I968 I92); "... a viable contrastive study must be built upon an understanding of language universals..." and not on "... seeking out inter-language differences" (Di Pietro, I968, p. 65).

What "contrastive linguistics" is really concerned with is o v e r a l l comparison of two or more languages without reference to their genetic relationship.

3/. See, for example, Stockwell (I968, p.25); Nickel (I97I, p.X); James (I97I).

4/. Nickel (I97I, p. X).

5/. Wyatt (I97I) and Snook (I97I).

6/. Cf. in the same volume Lehiste (I97I, p. 73).

7/. It is interesting to observe, in this connection, that ever since Edward Sapir published his famous analyses of "Totality" very little progress has been made.

8/. It has been explained in the Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian English Contrastive Project 5 Zagreb, 1972, Institute of Linguistics, faculty of Philology, Zagreb, Yugoslavia. Center for Applied Linguistics Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

Thomas K. Adeyangu - "The Use of Sector Analysis in Contrastive Studies in Linguistics P.p. 3-18.

9/. It was xeroxed as a preprint, but not included in the Proceedings because of the author's absence at the Congress.

10/. It should be borne in mind that different kinds of social activities, such as jurisdiction, education up to university level, cultural and scientific exchange etc. are being conducted in the Soviet republics in the indigenous languages.

11/. The study of a "foreign language" is compulsory in school and in higher education. All this sets

very important problems before a teacher of a foreign language and reliable contrastive study will do much to improve his or her achievement.

I2/. It should be noted that the term "translation" can be applied only loosely to cases of this kind: the words "*недоумение*", "*стул*", "*сообщение*" are not found in the original.

I3/. We cannot discuss here the lexical-phraseological aspect of the word-combinations in question or lexical-phraseological difference between "sustain a conversation" as against "be sustaining a conversation".

I4/. The following anecdotal example will serve as an illustration. A German who had lived in Russia for twenty odd years refusing to "carry" certain expenses stated that "*Таких расходов я не ношу*". Quite obviously the writer was quite right from the logical point of view, because what he was thinking of was a r e p e a t e d action. But it so happens that a sentence of this kind can only make a Russian person laugh, because "*нести рас-*

ходы" is phraseologically bound and therefore does not lend itself to regular aspectual oppositions on a purely grammatical level.

I5/. Even in the field of syntax all attempts at constructing a completely non-semantic theory of grammar have failed. The so-called "semantic component" is consistently coming to the fore.

I6/. A few remarks concerning the hierarchy of linguistic disciplines seem to be called for. Morphology as "morphemics" is the theory of ultimate meaningful units of language, Syntax - the theory of the "construction" (postrojenije) of utterances, Lexicology is the theory of the main units of language, of words, which are endowed with the faculty of distinct individual reference to extralinguistic reality and Linguostylistics - the theory of optimalization of informational properties of language, (učenije ob optimalizacii informacionnyx svojstv jazyka). But "morphology" includes "grammatical morphology", i.e., is not confined to "lexical morphology", or the theory of derivation, composition etc. Although it is customary to speak of "grammatical meaning", it is really a question of "semiological relevance of

inflectional formants". This was demonstrated, during the symposium of L'Institut de Linguistique in 1957.

17/. In Russian linguistics examples of three approaches are found in Šaxmatov 1941:420, Peškovskij 1934:26 and Polivanov 1928:21. In Bloomfield's Postulates 1926 "the functional meanings and the class meanings of a language are the categories of the language". Interestingly in Bloomfield, 1956, the word "category" appears only in "categories of inflection", the various phenomena listed under "syntax" figuring as "syntactic signs"; "20.1. the syntactic signs are cross reference, concord, obviation, relative referen e, verbal order and mode and word order".

18/. Cf. Smirnitsky 1956.

19/. Emphasis must be laid on "no less". The reduction of all grammatical oppositions to contrasting p a i r s has been all important for machine linguistics. Otherwise, marked and unmarked members form a binary opposition only in those cases in which the category in question is actually constituted by

two contrasting forms, as when, e.g., the category of number is constituted by the opposition of the categorial forms of singular and plural number. Although the grammatical categories which are constituted by the opposition of several categorial forms (e.g. tense in English or case in Russian) can, by subsequent analysis, be reduced to series of binary oppositions, this does not obliterate the fundamental difference between the categories which are actually constituted by binary opposition, and those that are reduced to a set of such oppositions for a specific practical purpose. In this connection the following quotation is apposite (Whorf 1945, 1956:100): "We do well to be sceptical of a grammarian's systematization when it is full of ENANTIOMORPHISM, the pairing with every category of an opposite, which is merely the lack of it. Specific categories of seemingly opposite meaning such as Passive Voice and Active Voice (when this term "active" means merely "non-passive") should be brought into one generic category ("voice") only when they are more than two, or when, if there are only two, taken together they contrast as a unit with some other system of forms".

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20/. Cf. Whorf's generic and specific categories (1938:113). Although Joos (1950:351) uses "category" for our "categorial form" he is fully aware of the important distinction and has "dimensions" or "dimensions of categorization" for our "categories".

21/. Cf. Peškovskij 1934:135; Weinreich 1961. The "state" of a language ("sostojanije jazyka") (as a set of synchronic structural relationships) is a state of mobile equilibrium. Morphological paradigms "crystallize" slowly and gradually. It is therefore but natural for the linguist to have to deal with all kinds of semicompleted processes and borderline cases.

22/. To say nothing of cases like Russian "ем" where the "synthetism" is extreme and where globality defies all segmentation into anything like a set of correspondences between expression and content. Equally complex is the problem of the so-called "analytical forms". Smirnitsky (1956, 1959:62) specifies the conditions which transform a free combination of words into an analytical categorial form. These conditions are: (I) there

must be at least one synthetic categorial form in the same grammatical category, for a slovosocetanije (a combination or group of words) can be raised to the status of analytical form only if it becomes the functional equivalent of a member of an opposition, which normally depends for expression on monolithic (cel'nooformlennyje) inflectional forms, e.g. I go - I went - I'll (shall) go, (2) the combination must become isolated from "free" combinations of the same kind: by entering the above system of oppositions I'll go is dissociated from e.g. I must go, I ought to go etc., expressing (or denoting), as it does not express modality; its "meaning" is temporal. It must be admitted, however, that definitions of "grammatical meaning" tend to be circular, e.g. the means of linguistic expression employed to signal a grammatical meaning are grammatical formants while grammatical meaning is the thing-meant (the designate) of the grammatical formants.

23/. See J.R. Firth (1950), "Personality and Language in Society", *Sociological Review*, 42; in Firth, 1957:177-89;
in Firth, 1957, *Papers in Linguistics*, 1934-1951 (London).

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B I B L I O G R A P H Y

The theory and practice of contrastive linguistics is attracting ever more attention all over the world: conferences, congresses and symposia, theses and publications are so numerous that keeping a systematic and up-to-date bibliographical account of the subject becomes an enormous task.

Most books and papers on the subject are very naturally devoted to contrastive analysis of two or more concrete languages, e.g. English and German, Russian and Hungarian, Byelorussian and Ukrainian etc. Although all works of this kind are usually brought together because of the word "contrastive" in their titles, there is a perceptible difference between "contrastive" or "analytic" comparison of cognate languages, on the one hand, and of languages, belonging to different language families - on the other: in the former case it is not always easy to draw a distinct line between contrastive linguistics and comparative philology; in the latter the contrastive or analytic approach is the only practicable one - until, at any rate, nostratic linguistics has been finally vindi-

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cated; but even if this ever actually happened, it would be far beyond the scope of the more modest researchers, whose interests and possibilities are confined to two or three well-known modern languages and whose orientation is mostly practical.

For two or more languages to be successfully "contrasted" the underlying general principles, a well-defined scientific theoretical approach must first be formulated. This is what we have attempted to do in the body of the present book.

Accordingly, we begin the Bibliography with a list of selected publications of a general character, followed by works on contrastive grammatical morphology - i.e. papers and books, in which two or more languages were contrasted against the backdrop of such conceptual categories as have (or have not) found compulsory grammatical expression in the languages in question. When the publications were not available and could not therefore be described *de visu*, we still thought it necessary to list them at second-hand in order that the readers may get the idea of the scope and general direction of research in our immediate field. In this part of the bibliography is also included a list of the

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basic and authoritative grammars of the five languages, i.e., English, Georgian, Ossetic, Russian and Turkoman.

We could well have stopped at that. There is, however, a great need of bibliographical information on contrastive linguistics in this country. We have therefore included tentative lists of publications on I. Phonetics; 2. Lexicology and 3. Syntax, with a very brief commentary on each of the three sections immediately preceding them.

I. GENERAL STUDIES

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Syntax is usually assumed to comprise the structure of sentences - major syntax and the structure of word combinations - slovosočetanija - minor syntax. There is also the intonation, the prosody of speech, which is hardly ever included in syntax proper. It is the conviction of the present authors that it is the prosody of speech or the "intonation", as it is usually and loosely described, which is one of the most important aspects of contrastive syntax, the really and purely l i n g u i s t i c aspect of this domain. This is why so many papers and dissertations on contrastive prosodic analysis were included in the above list. We

have also thought it possible to include several titles which bear upon the more traditional and possibly less perfectly justifiable aspects of syntax - papers connected with government, with the use of prepositions, with the functioning of case forms etc. But as has already been said in the Introduction to the book, it is only works on the general principles of contrastive analysis and works on morphology which are immediately connected with the present investigation. All the rest of the bibliographic material was included for reasons which have been explained above, and which are of much less significance as far as the structure of the present book is concerned.

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